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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The present time seems to be opportune for taking account of the significance of the vocational guidance movement. If intelligently evaluated and directed, it has great possibilities for the improvement of our systems of public education. On the other hand, it may fail in its beneficent purpose altogether if these possibilities are overestimated, if irrational methods are employed, or if impossible results are promised.

Like most new movements, its chief dangers lie in the extravagant claims of its too-zealous promoters on the one hand, and the unreasoning skepticism of the ultra-conservatives in education on the other. Somewhere between these two extremes will be found a reasonable vocational guidance program which is receiving the attention and gaining the respect of a large number of progressive educators.

For example, there are those who appear to believe that it is easily possible to develop a system of character analysis by means of which marked vocational aptitudes can be discovered or equally marked incapacities can be detected and pointed out. Such advocates of vocational guidance deprecate any attempt to counsel youth until a complete and adequate method has been worked out by trained specialists, and they point out the grave dangers which attend an "unscientific" plan of guidance. They generally demand an equally thorough study of vocations, and feel that the information thus gained should be systematized and prepared for use before any vocational guidance should be attempted.

On the other hand there are those who, seeing the great difficulty of carrying out the plans of these extremists, and being quite willing to delay action and to justify the schools as they are, deny both the possibility and the necessity of vocational guidance as a school function.

Between these extremes will be found many progressive school men who are proceeding on the assumption that the public-school system should articulate with life at many more points than it now does; points well distributed between the professions at one extreme and the humblest vocations at the other. While they appreciate the contributions which scientific study can and will make, ultimately, to the movement, these progressive educators see great need of immediate action, and they are proceeding accordingly.

Details cannot be discussed here, but, speaking generally, these educators are working on the theory that vocational guidance is not a new function of education, but rather an old function which needs liberal extension. This extension, furthermore, lies within two well-defined fields, the first being curriculum enlargement or adjustment, and the second, educational supervision of those who have left the regular schools.

The first leads naturally to the establishment of new vocational courses, the revision and adaptation of old ones, and the necessary "educational" guidance which will enable the pupil to choose intelligently from the rich educational offerings.

The second leads, quite as naturally, to the establishment or improvement of evening schools, compulsory day continuation schools, and the inauguration of what the English term "registration"; that is, the school employment office or "placement bureau." All this may be designated as employment supervision.

We are of the opinion that curriculum improvement and employment supervision, while they cannot solve all problems, will go far to meet the present demand for vocational guidance in the schools. Indeed, as was affirmed some years ago, "vocational guidance means guidance for educations, not guidance for jobs," though "jobs" may be the ultimate goal. Therefore school officials, even though they cannot command a vocational survey by trained investigators, should take an active part in the vocational guidance movement, for, surely, all who are genuinely interested in the full unfolding of the American system of popular education are hoping that the movement will prove to be, not a mere eddy in the stream, but a real quickening and broadening of the whole educational current.

FRANK M. LEAVITT

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

Mr. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., of the Bureau of Education, is the author of a little pamphlet entitled *General Survey of Education*, 1914, which has just appeared, a government bulletin reprint from the report of the Commissioner of Education. He gives the following interesting facts:

There were, in 1914, 22,000,000 persons enrolled in educational institutions in the United States, more than one-fifth of the total population. Of these, 19,000,000 were in elementary schools, 1,374,000 in secondary schools, 201,000 in colleges and universities, 100,000 in normal schools, 67,000 in professional schools, and the remainder scattered through other types of institutions. There are 700,000 teachers in the United States.

The cost of education for the year was approximately \$750,000,000, which is less by \$300,000,000 than the cost of running the federal government; about one-third the nation's expenditure for alcoholic liquors; three times the estimated cost of admissions to moving-picture theaters in the United States; somewhat more than the value of the 1914 cotton crop; less than one-half the value of the corn crop, and somewhat less than the value of the wheat crop.

Statistics for 1914 show private elementary schools as follows: parochial schools numbering 5,403 with 1,429,000 pupils; Lutheran schools, 4,800 with 259,000 pupils. Of the 567 colleges and universities, 327 are listed under denominational control. Of the 2,199 private high schools and academies, 1,489 are under control of religious denominations. These secondary institutions of 28 different denominations have 100,000 pupils. In 1914 there were 863 Catholic high schools.

The statistics show 13,714 public and private high schools for the year with 1,373,661 students, an increase of nearly 100,000 over the preceding year, an increase of more than 100 per cent since 1902. During the past year the fourth-year students numbered 14.27 per cent as compared with 13.94 per cent in 1913, and 11.68 per cent in 1907. Of the 11,515 public high schools, 8,275 have four-year courses. They contain 92.42 per cent of the public high-school enrolment as compared with 91.21 per cent in 1913 and 88.3 per cent in 1911. The number of girls shows a slightly greater proportion: 56.3 per cent of the students in high schools were girls in 1914 as against 55.46 per cent in 1913. The junior high school was indorsed by all but one of the educational surveys published during the year. One hundred and sixty-eight cities claimed to have the junior high school; and in 57 cities, junior high schools are organized in unmistakable form.

Especially interesting are the facts presented by Mr. Ryan concerning teacher-training. Graduates of normal schools for the year numbered 20,658. It is estimated that 15,000 teachers went into the rural schools from teacher-training courses in high schools, and about 5,000 were graduated from college after taking courses in education, most of these teaching in high schools. From these facts it seems to be clear that the supply of professionally prepared teachers is not yet sufficient for the number of teaching positions that must be filled every year. This need is felt most keenly in the rural schools and in the high schools. To meet this need, between 1910 and 1914 the number of institutions engaged in training teachers increased from 1,397 to 1,620, and the number of students in these schools increased from 115,000 to 122,000, the

latter figure not including students in colleges and universities. All of this development is accompanied by a remarkable increase of summer work. Of the more than 200,000 persons in attendance at summer schools in 1914, it is estimated that fully one-third were teachers seeking professional preparation.

A most rapid development of teacher-training courses in the high schools has taken place in 1914: 1,051 schools were reported as engaged in the work of preparation of teachers, with 21,076 students in the courses. This is an increase since 1911 of 440 schools and 6,396 students. Maryland and Ohio established teacher-training in the public high schools by legislative act in 1914; 288 miscellaneous institutions also reported that they were training teachers in 1914.

EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL CLASSES OF CHILDREN

The magnitude of the problem of the handicapped child and the extent to which the states have taken over the burden of his education are indicated in the statistics for special schools collected by the Bureau of Education. The 62 public schools for the blind report 665 teachers, 4,971 pupils, and an aggregate expenditure of \$2,563,173 for the year 1914. Of the 151 schools for the deaf listed by the bureau, 68 are state schools, 65 public day schools, and 18 are private schools. There are 13,859 pupils, taught by 1,689 teachers. The expenditure of the 68 state schools for the deaf in 1914 was \$3,777,162.

State schools for feeble-minded children numbered 38; these are confined to 28 states, New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania each having three or more separate schools. There are also 25 private schools for feeble-minded children. State schools reported 381 instructors and 2,328 assistants, with 27,692 inmates, of whom 14,880 were actually under instruction. Expenditures for schools for the feeble-minded amounted to nearly \$6,000,000. Public day schools for subnormal children were reported from 54 cities. Thirty-six cities in 24 states made provision for exceptional children for the first time in 1913, and 162 cities in 34 states extended the provision already made. Special training for teachers of exceptional children is now provided in a score or more of institutions of college and university grade.

There are 112 institutions listed by the Bureau of Education as state "industrial" schools. These are schools for delinquents of both sexes, ranging from reform schools of the prison type to modern well-equipped industrial schools for the teaching of useful trades. There

are 1,052 teachers, 3,085 assistants who are not teachers, and 54,798 inmates in these institutions, of whom four-fifths are boys. Of the 21,665 boys and girls committed to institutions during the year, 2,635 could neither read nor write; of the 22,068 discharged during the year, 1,962 could neither read nor write.

DIRECT SUBSIDIES FOR TEACHERS

The Department of Education of Ontario, Canada, encourages the schools of the Provincial System by making special grants to school boards and teachers, under certain specified conditions. For instance, an annual grant of \$100.00 is made to the teacher in art who holds a certificate as a specialist in art, obtained on a departmental examination, and an additional \$100.00 if he holds also a diploma from the Ontario College of Art. The school board whose art teacher has earned the special grant thus provided is required to purchase at least one hundred dollars worth of works of art, approved by the department, and toward the cost of which the Province grants \$50.00.

Similar subsidies are granted to promote the teaching of agriculture, horticulture, household sciences, manual training, music, physical culture. For example, an annual grant of \$120.00 is paid to the holder of a high-school professional certificate and the degree B.Sc. (A.G.R.) for carrying on the lower- and middle-school courses, respectively, for the calendar year. Varying sums are offered as annual grants to teachers in different stages of preparation, adding from \$25.00 to \$200.00 a year to the teacher's salary, and approximately the same sum to the school trustees.

There are certain obvious objections to subsidies given directly to the individual teachers. Nevertheless, the impetus for more extended preparation through these grants is made at once positive and effective. Under the present system of promoting teachers in the United States, at least, there is too much opportunity for a teacher simply to hold on to his position with approximately the same salary, making little or no progress. The hope of increased remuneration sometime in the future, vague and indefinite as it is, is frequently an insufficient inducement for further preparation. On the contrary, a definite promise of a specific but respectable sum of money as a reward for an earnest effort to secure better equipment is probably the most effective stimulus that could be devised. Indeed, it may be suggested that both federal and state subsidies might be, on the whole, far more productive of good results if they extended their benefits directly to the teachers rather than to the school boards.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, OLD AND NEW

We remember an interesting school meeting twenty-six or -seven years ago when the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences proposed a series of conferences for teachers to promote the study of psychology as a guide for education. A bright and active member of the staff of the Boys' High School read a paper. He had, he said, canvassed every teacher in his own organization, and several outside of it, and had not been able to find one person who had obtained the slightest aid to the work of teaching from the study of any book upon psychology. He was the hit of the occasion. We applauded him most heartily. Those were the days when one was always sure of the acclaim of an audience of teachers if he would advance to the front of the platform, with uplifted hands, and say, "With all due respect to these seekers after new things, I can only repeat what twenty-five years of experience has borne in upon me, *doctor nascitur non fit*, the true teacher is born and not made."

One remembers the time when the most prominent old physician in his town took delight in demonstrating that machine-made medical men were charlatans. The way to be a physician is to begin by sweeping out the office and harnessing the horse. One recollects the scorn an old Michigan Central Railroad builder felt for the civil engineers turned out by colleges. The millwright who put in the dams in the Huron River had a rich array of stories of the stupidity of the men who studied in Ann Arbor. Poultney Bigelow quotes Edison affirming, "A college man isn't worth a dam (a wad of clay used by tinkers to prevent the solder running off) in the business." The commercial men we canvassed in 1902 regarding the teaching of salesmanship in the business departments of the high schools were almost unanimous that a study of the principles of the display of advertising, of engaging the interest of customers, of courtesy, of measuring, of making of sales slips, would be worse than a waste of time. We marvel at the changes we have seen. Within the limited number of commercial men known to us are those who have spent the firm's money to give their men a course in Sheldon's Art of Selling. Hydraulic, mechanical, electric, civil engineers send to the schools of technology for men. We do not know a doctor who came into the profession except from a medical school.

There must have been some good ground for the impatience of practical men toward what they called the theoretical fol-de-rol of the books. Who has not turned in weariness from the padded psychologies pushed into the hands of teachers? Forty years ago the University of Michigan established courses for the training of teachers. It was the regular thing

for the instructor in psychology to change the textbook every year, because the class found each successive volume insufferably dull. But we have come on famously. We have today psychologies that are distinctly readable; textbooks that do not flood the whole expanse of antiquity to give the student a few weak trickles into the field of his daily job.

WILLIAM McANDREW

ADDITIONAL PAY FOR SUMMER WORK

The New York teachers are almost a unit in opposing the proposal to have regular day-school teachers carry on the work of vacation schools. An elaborate statement, drawn up by one of their number and signed by the presidents of nearly two score teachers' associations, sets forth, in detail, their objections to the plan. This brief appears to be inconclusive. For example an elaborate argument is made to the effect that a longer school year is tantamount to a reduction in salary, that this lowering of salary will repel efficient teachers, who will seek employment elsewhere.

This argument itself appears to be sound, if it is a fact that New York proposes to require six or eight weeks additional from any of its teachers without additional pay, unless the burdens of the regular school year are greatly lessened for each individual teacher. However, it is inconceivable that any such unfair proposal should be seriously considered. In Newark, New Jersey, the city which is used as a horrible example in the pamphlet by the Association of Presidents, the teachers in the all-year schools are employed on the basis of the twelve-months term instead of the ten-months term, and the monthly salary is the same for the additional two months as for the other months. It requires little imagination to conjecture how quickly a sufficient number of New York teachers, including the principals, would gladly work a month or six weeks longer in the year for an addition of one-tenth to one-twelfth more to their annual salary. In Gary, the teachers are employed by the month and are paid extra for Saturday and summer work, according to the state law of Indiana, which defines a school week as five days and the school month as twenty days. In Cleveland, for summer work the teachers are paid four-fifths of their salary in the regular day schools, the summer service being four hours a day instead of five. In the light of these facts, and of all other information available, it is difficult to understand how any school authorities could seriously propose to reduce the salary of their teachers by extending their school year. If such a

proposal is made in New York it ought to be unsparingly condemned; if such a proposal is not under consideration in New York the brief signed by the associated principals makes them appear ridiculous.

SUPERVISED STUDY

Some six years ago a plan for supervision of study was introduced into the Pottstown, Pennsylvania, High School. This plan differs from the generally used device of double periods, in that there is a real division of function. Are we right in thinking that study can best be carried on in the same atmosphere as the regular recitation work? Is it not far better that there should be little or no suggestion of preparation in the regular period for recitation and some time set aside for the special, definite purpose of teaching how to study?

Convinced that this was the solution of much of the difficulty in the way of pupils' inability to grasp the subject-matter of their lessons, the writer formulated the following plan, which has had at least some influence in meeting and solving the problem so common to our high schools:

The study period is arranged for at the end of the day, as in that way the teacher can test the efficiency of the assignment before the pupils have gone home. If this assignment has met the purpose intended, the teacher can rest well, as the pupil can finish any work that is not complicated in the study period without further help. If there must be some home study, it is properly prepared for. The pupil has the necessary direction to carry out the daily assignment in the teacher's absence.

This plan provides for another valid objection to the combined periods. It has been asserted by some teachers who are using the combined plan that the pupils are kept in school too long and the wear and tear on both the teacher and pupils is too great. This comes from trying to do two things at once; from teaching and reciting at the same time or the putting of these two processes, which are wholly different in nature, altogether too contiguous.

Another and far more important feature of the plan used here is that we dismiss the pupils who make an average of 90 per cent when the study period begins. Are we not right in assuming that those who make good records have solved for themselves the problem of proper study? In questioning a very enthusiastic teacher who is in a school where the combination method is employed, I found, not unexpectedly, that he was giving the major, and by far the major, portion of the time devoted to

study to the weaker pupils. "This is inevitably so," he remarked. Now why should we interfere with those who are solving the problem probably far better for themselves than we could do for them? Self-activity is far more valuable to a pupil than any direction we can give. By this plan we attend to the cases which need a physician and do not hamper or weaken the well by unnecessary interference with their own activities. If a pupil can do for himself all that is required he should be rewarded for his ability, and by shortening his day in the schoolroom that much we are recognizing his ability and devotion to his work—something we are prone to neglect.

In all the time we have been using this early dismissal plan for the pupils who are doing the work in a superior way I have yet to hear a word of complaint on the part of the parents of these pupils. We can all very vividly hear the storm of protest which comes from the parents of pupils who are not doing the work when, even for a day, the school routine is interrupted. Pupils who do well in school do not as a rule offer any serious trouble to their parents and there is no objection at all about having them at home early. They organize their time properly and no parent will find fault.

The superiority of this plan over the double period seems apparent for the reasons given: it does not keep the studious pupil in school longer than he should be so confined, it puts the emphasis on the real work in hand and the teacher has only the weak pupil to deal with, and it gives a sensible incentive to any pupil to improve his work so as to gain recognition.

L. I. LOVELAND

PORTSTOWN, PA.

CHICAGO SCHOOLS

The Chicago public schools are being investigated by several different bodies. A committee from the state senate is looking into the question of the recent trouble between the superintendent and the members of the Board of Education; and into the deficits, and into the holding by the Board of very much unused property. A second investigation is being directed by the Board itself. It is intended to show that rumors of speculation in school sites and of other forms of mismanagement are thoroughly unfounded. It is to be hoped that the Board will be able to vindicate itself from these charges of graft, of stuffed pay rolls, of speculation, and of unnecessary friction with city officials. It is announced that this investigation will be made by a firm of public account-

ants selected by certain important civic organizations within the city. A third committee from the City Council is also delving into the situation of the Chicago schools.

Even a casual observer must know that politics are bound to be rife in so large a board and in a population so varied as Chicago's is. Alas, quite possibly politics are bound to be rife in any board representing a democratic constituency made up of so many various elements.

Not only is the Board active in defending itself against charges of mismanagement, but it is also said to be maturing plans for the reorganization of business procedure. These plans contemplate the abolition of the committee on special schools, the different functions heretofore discharged by that committee to be distributed among certain new committees.

There is to be a committee on recreation centers; a committee on attendance, superseding the bureau of attendance; a committee on continuation instruction, which is also to have general charge of the work now performed by the bureau of lectures. Other committees, on vocational schools, on salaries, and on grades, are to be added. The committees on finance, by-laws and legislation, high schools and training schools, nominations and athletics, and other minor committees will continue as at present.

No reports or resolutions, adopted by standing or special committees, on the day of the Board meeting, or on the Monday or Tuesday preceding, are to be presented to the Board, except such as relate to the award of contracts or appropriations therefore.

All ordinary administrative business, not involving the initiation of a new policy, will be under the immediate direction of the executive heads of the various bureaus and departments, subject to the general direction of their respective committees.

This latter proposal, which relieves the Board and its committees from considering matters of administrative detail, is highly commendable. It is a step toward the theory of a small board of education which determines policies, but leaves administrative details in the hands of its expert employees.

HIGH-SCHOOL TERMINOLOGY

The wisdom of a uniform terminology in various educational circles is coming to the fore. A few years ago the universities and colleges adopted standard terms; last year the language teachers promulgated plans for uniform nomenclature. At the Cincinnati convention, the

National Commission on Reorganization, recognizing difficulties encountered from differing constructions placed upon terms commonly used in the high-school field, adopted, officially, the following lists: "Elementary Education, Secondary Education and Collegiate Education" (defined qualitatively as to distinguishing content, method, and function), "High School," "Junior High School," "Senior High School," "Junior College," "Incomplete High School," "General Education," "Vocational Education," "Vocational Guidance," "Prevocational Education," "Industrial Education," "Agricultural Education," "Domestic Education," "Commercial Education," "Teachers' Training Education," "Occupational Education," "Independent Industrial, Agricultural, Domestic, or Teacher-Training High School," "Industrial, Agricultural, Domestic, Commercial, or Normal Training Curriculum," "Evening Class," "Part-Time Class," "Continuation School," "Program of Studies," "Schedule of Classes," "Curriculum," "Allied Group of Courses," "Sequential Group," "Department," "High-School Subject," "Course," "Credit Unit," "Extra Credit," "Outside Credits," "Unit of Instruction," "Graduation," "School Year," "Class Period," "Subject Class," "Elective System," "Group System," "Curriculum System," "High-School Major," "High-School Minor," "Pupil," "School Class," "Grade Marks," "Honorable Dismissal," "Statement of Record."

Two admirable explanatory articles, by Charles Hughes Johnston, setting forth the wish of the committee, together with a careful explanation of the terms, all may be found in February and March numbers of the *Educational Review*.

THE JUNIOR SCHOOL

The following data were prepared for the October, 1914, meeting of the New Jersey Council of Education, by Dr. William A. Wetzel, Principal of the Trenton High School:

The present division of our schools into elementary grades, 1-8, and secondary grades, 9-12, is "not only undesirable but illogical, based on the accidents of history." Indictment follows:

1. Monotonous repetition of common branches prolonged unnecessarily at the expense of secondary subjects which should be begun.
2. It violates the order in which subjects should be presented, e.g., foreign language (based on memory) better in the seventh grade than the usual course in arithmetic (involving difficult reasoning).
3. Too many subjects in Grades 7 and 8 and much of subject-matter not vital. Pupils are overworked.

4. Pupils are retarded unnecessarily through promotion by grades rather than by subjects. This affects both the slow pupil and the pupil of superior ability.

5. A gap between the elementary school and the high school difficult to bridge because:

a) Too great change in subjects.

b) Departmental teaching.

c) Distance to high school.

d) The change comes during rather than at the beginning of the adolescent period.

e) The first two years of high school are preparatory years rather than finishing years.

6. Seventh- and eighth-grade pupils are too old to fit into the school life of lower grades.

7. The plan is frequently wasteful:

a) Of the teacher's time, in teaching small seventh- and eighth-grade sections.

b) Of equipment, science equipment, shops, kitchens, etc. Many cities have cooking and manual-training centers, thus recognizing need of centralizing seventh and eighth grades.

8. The present manual training courses in Grades 7 and 8 fail to give the "overall" education that all city boys need.

9. The present plan is not in harmony with the compulsory school law. The compulsory school law keeps in school two classes of pupils who are hard to fit into the present arrangement:

a) Non-bookminded pupils in Grades 7 and 8.

b) Older pupils in the first year in high school who sit in "watchful waiting" until they are sixteen years old.

10. The presence of these pupils does not create but exaggerates the need of differentiated courses. Failure to recognize this need constitutes the most serious charge.

Differentiation of courses should begin at twelve years of age. It is no more undemocratic to differentiate at this age than at fourteen or fifteen. Democracy in education means equality of opportunity rather than equality of treatment.

Suggested remedy is:

Elementary school, Grades 1-6; junior school, Grades 7-10; senior school, Grades 11-12 (or junior school, Grades 7-9, senior school, Grades 10-12).

Advantages of the plan:

1. It makes definite the work of the elementary school and of the secondary school. (See Johnston, *High-School Education*, pp. 75-78.) The shorter time devoted to the three R's would result in elimination of much that is unessential.

2. It makes possible the grouping of pupils according to their capacities and needs, and makes the public school a genuinely democratic institution.

General classification would be the following: Academic, industrial or domestic, commercial.

3. Promotion by subjects breaks up the "lockstep" system. (2) and (3) would be very beneficial to both poorer and better pupils.

4. It reduces school mortality. New Bedford, Massachusetts, has a junior school established in 1912. The attendance in the seventh grade increased in three years from 287 to 522. In the same time the attendance in the eighth grade increased from 214 to 352.

5. It is reasonable to claim that earlier introduction of secondary subjects will save time in preparation for a professional career. This is important because many professions, notably law, medicine, engineering, are rapidly reaching the point where they demand a college course as a prerequisite to professional study.

6. The junior school brings together a homogeneous body. Reaction of methods of discipline, school organization, and student organizations on the student body will be wholesome. Discuss sports, auditorium exercises, holiday programs, etc.

7. Better science equipment will be placed at the disposal of pupils in Grades 7 and 8.

8. The faculty can be chosen to secure teachers, men and women, who are both trained in the subjects they shall teach, and in sympathy with youth.

9. The junior school will, in the large cities, bring secondary instruction nearer to the homes of the pupils, and thus reach a larger number of pupils.

10. The work of the senior school could be made more intense. More rigid standards of scholarship could be applied.

11. The junior school would be helpful in both vocational guidance and vocational training. With its varied courses it would help pupils to find themselves. The correlated shop and academic training would be helpful to those pupils who left before finishing the junior course. Graduates of the junior school would be old enough and would have received excellent training, to enter a trade school or begin an apprenticeship.

12. A junior school including ages twelve to sixteen could provide an excellent cultural education for pupils desiring it. The need for such a school is urgent.

13. The division of time under this plan not only corresponds to changes in the life of the child, but makes possible a sane enforcement of the compulsory school law.